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ABSTRACT

The status, roles, and functions of those involved in the supervision of teachers were studied, with attention to observation, evaluation, counseling, and inservice programs. The evolution of the supervisory role from 1850 to the present was traced, and probable future changes were predicted. The components of supervision as reported in the professional literature and leading textbooks were the basis for the construction of a questionnaire that was sent to 102 leading supervisory personnel in Maryland. The responses were used to empirically validate the information gained from the professional literature. Factor analysis produced five factors from the survey data: training or educational credits, evaluation, gender, number supervised (responsibility), and supervisory style. The reported time spent in the various supervisory roles and functions provided greater insight into the components of supervision described in the literature. Overall, the supervisors favored the formative over the summative aspects of evaluation and preferred observation of the teaching process over testing student achievement as a strategy for evaluating teaching. A bibliography is attached. (SW)

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SUPERVISORY ATTITUDES ON TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS AS PERCEIVED BY LEADING MARYLAND SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL

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ABSTRACT

SUPERVISORY ATTITUDES ON TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

AS PERCEIVED BY LEADING

MARYLAND SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL

The status, roles and functions of those involved in the supervision of teachers is the focus of this study. Specific attention is paid to the roles and functions in the areas of observation, evaluation, counseling, and inservice programs.

The paper traces the evolution of the supervisory role from the 1800's to the present and theorizes as to what further changes are likely. The components of supervision as reported in the professional literature and leading textbooks were the basis for the construction of a questionnaire sent to leading supervisory personnel (n=102) in the State of Maryland. Their responses were the basis for an empirical validation of the information gained from the professional literature. Factor analytic procedures extracted these five factors from the survey data. The factors were training or educational credits, evaluation, gender, number supervised (responsibility), and supervisory style. The reported time spent in the various supervisory roles and functions provides greater insight into the components of supervision decribed in the professional literature. Overall the supervisors favored the formative over the summative aspects of evaluation and preferred observation of the teaching process over testing student achievement as a strategy for evaluating teaching.

Supervisory Attitudes on Teaching Effectiveness

In the most recent (1986) Gallup Poll of the public's attitudes toward the schools, the public perceived the "lack of discipline" and "difficulty in getting good teachers" as two of the five most significant problems facing the schools.[1] The responsibility for instructional improvement lies with supervisory personnel, primarily principals, supervisors and departmental chairpersons. The message the public is sending to those responsible for supervision is that teachers must be competent. The role of supervision is to help ensure that teachers remain competent. The focus of this paper is on the nature of the supervisory role regarding teaching as perceived by leading supervisory personnel in Maryland. Specifically, how do they perceive their roles and functions in the areas of observations, evaluation, counseling, and in-service programs?

Nature of Teaching

If supervision is to be effective, then the act of teaching needs to be defined. Teaching assumes a teacher, a body of content, and a learner. The effective teacher is characterized by offering a (presage) level of planning specific learning objectives wherein those objectives (process) are presented in ways that facilitate learning (product). According to Robert Soar, presage, process and product are the three stages that constitute the basic criteria for teaching effectiveness.[2] In any case, the teacher possesses a set of abilities, knowledges and skills which affect performance. Teacher competence directly relates to teaching performance. Consequently, the supervisor needs to understand the nature of teaching, and by observation the teaching act can be diagnosed effectively, and teachers provided with

strategies for improving their teaching. John Henry aptly describes the nature of teaching:

> It is a complex process. The issue of what constitutes a good teacher is not resolved in an absolute way. Teaching appears to be a phenomenon where the "sum is greater than the parts." Teaching may be broken down into subordinate skills but the acquisition of these skills alone does not necessarily constitute good teaching.... A good teacher's personal teaching style is an amalgam of skills, background knowledge, philosophy and personality.[3]

Nevertheless, even though the nature of teaching is very personalized in individual style, the assumption is that it can be evaluated. If this were not so, then there would be no point to the supervisory function. Teacher effectiveness depends upon many pre-teaching factors such as the intelligence of the teacher as well as his/her personality characteristics, life experiences, and motivation. The N.T.E. (National Teacher Examination) and teacher training requirements built into teacher education programs have basic competency requirements of speech and hearing tests, writing and reading skills; these standards are held to have significance for successful entrance into the field of teaching. Thereafter, teacher performance (process) and pupil learning (product) become the two most important factors in determining teacher effectiveness. Donald Medley lists the five most important variables in judging teacher effectiveness: pre-teacher characteristics, teacher competitiveness, teacher performance, pupil learnings, and pupil learning outcomes.[4] Unfortunately, pre-teacher characteristics to some extent limit teacher effectiveness and is an area that is outside the control of supervisors. At best, supervisors can be made a part of the interviewing and hiring team. Their expertise in working with teachers will help them to hire the best teachers available. As various states move to upgrade basic teacher selection standards and teacher-training institutions promote competency-based programs, there should be a significant improvement in teacher candidates. Thereafter, the role of the supervisor will be facilitated.

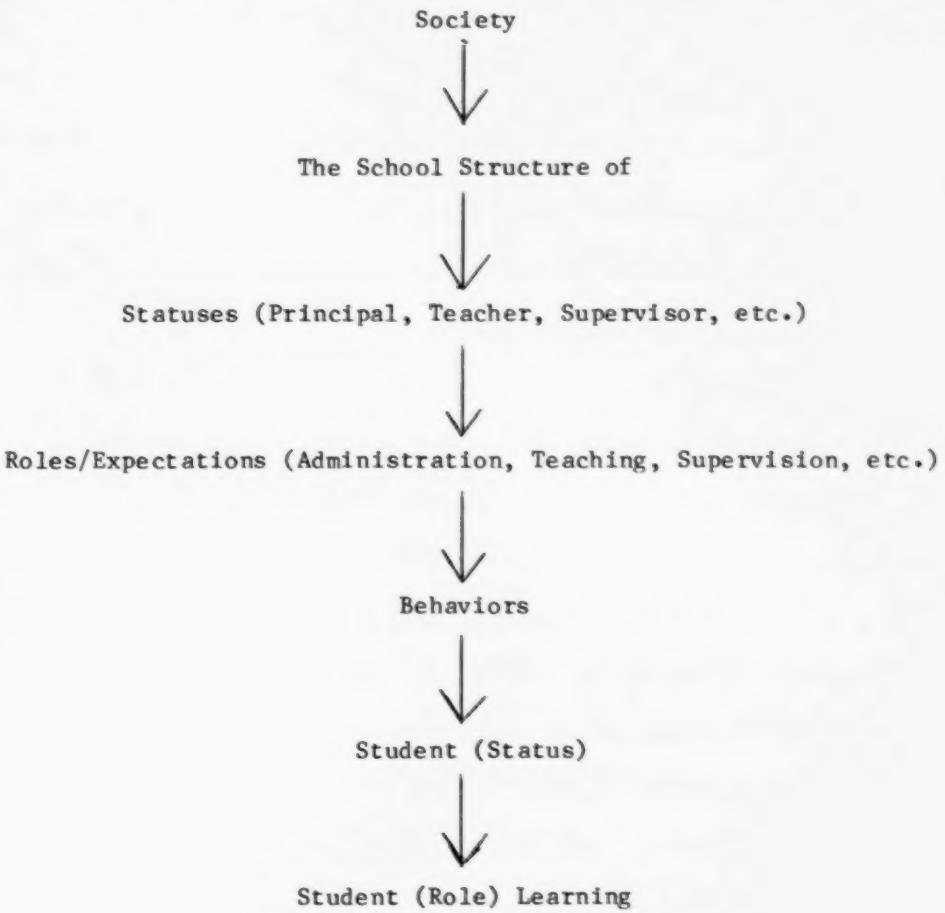
Nature of Supervision

Since supervision is the process of observing, overseeing, and directing the activities of others, then the nature of supervision revolves primarily about the functions of helping others to improve their job performance. This constitutes a more limited perspective of supervision wherein the supervisor is viewed as an instructional leader. Contrastingly, administration is a management service where the principal traditionally works closely with tasks such as pupil accounting, attendance, transportation, food services, building maintenance, finance, and several other areas peripheral to instruction. The difficulty in defining the supervisory role is that there may be multiple functions that supervisors perform, many of which overlap administrative areas. Ben Harris lists the ten most common functions of many supervisory personnel: curriculum specialist, instructional leader, staffing expert, controller of facilities and materials, director of in-service programs, orienting of new staff, pupil services, public relations, and evaluation of instruction.[5]

In an examination of the leading textbooks on supervision in the past twenty years, Jon Wiles and Joseph Bandi found six major conceptualizations, namely, a focus on the supervisor as leader, manager, human relations expert, instructor, curriculum developer, and administrator.[6] Obviously, the nature of supervision depends upon the prior evolution of supervisory roles that arise in each school district. We have certainly progressed from the original beginnings of the supervisory role, once limited to that of inspector, circa de 1850-1910. After several traditional changes, the supervisor now is basically a manager of instruction (1980), and that role is likely to be clarified during the rest of the 1980s as the emphasis on pupil testing (end-product learning) becomes more universally accepted as the means to evaluate teaching effectiveness.

A Conceptual Model of Supervision

In the examination of the nature of supervision, one can construct a conceptual framework that may be useful in exploring the relationship of supervision to the school. The school consists of personnel, facilities, curriculum, and pupils. It is a formal instrument used by society to carry out specific institutional goals. The school consists of various personnel who have statuses and specific roles. Those roles reflect expectations that lead to behaviors that help serve the purposes of the institution. The following diagram is a model of the conceptual framework for supervision.



The supervisor holds a status position that typically finds its validity in relationship with the status position of teacher. The teacher carries out his/her role through the act of teaching (process). Teaching behaviors are commonly divided into three stages: presage, interaction, and reaction in which the areas of methodology, planning, classroom management, and evaluation, are basic concerns. The student's status is evaluated primariliy on the criterion of his success as a learner (end-product learning). Similarly, the supervisor is most intimately connected with the teacher, being concerned immediately with the process of teaching but also ultimately with the learning product. Teachers need to be observed to determine how effectively that process is being exercised. However, the final step in the conceptual model is student learning; therefore, the supervisor must be directly concerned with the learning product. When supervision stops solely after the observation and assessment of the teacher it has omitted the final step in the model of effective schooling. The bottom line of accountability is the determination of how fully the school affects learning. Learning is the end result that society sets down to ensure its perpetuation. Specific attitudes, skills, and knowledges are the raison d'etre for the institution of schooling; all objectives are secondary to the primary function of schooling--learning.

Supervisory Patterns Today

The recent movement to proficiency testing of pupils and competency-based instruction has expanded to include the use of (N.T.E.) examinations for teacher candidates and teachers in the field. Traditionally, during much of the twentieth century, the supervisor was viewed as an instructional helper. The observation of teachers was at the formative level aimed toward assisting teachers in the improvement of their process effectiveness. Recently, the

supervisory role is evolving to where the supervisor is being increasingly viewed as a summative evaluator. The goal of the formative level of evaluation is to improve teacher performance by providing analysis, helpful suggestions and strategies that positively affect teaching skills. Generally, the supervisory emphasis has been upon the process of teaching and helping teachers in a non-threatening way. Therein, the supervisor provides data, and feedback that emphasizes the "how to teach." On the other hand, summative evaluation assumes the supervisory role to be an administrative function that serves for making decisions, particularly in the areas of retention, tenure, promotion or merit, change of assignments, and salary increments. The summative form of evaluation assumes an industrial model where the school is viewed as an economic system that produces a learning product. The teachers are considered to be equivalent to the assembly line workers and the pupils are regarded as the material to be molded. The supervisors in the industrial model serve as watchman to insure productivity in the instructional units. Observation of teaching necessitates specific use of observation instruments that have been standardized for a subject area and grade level. Moreover, since end-product evaluation of pupil learning is the ultimate criterion for gauging the success of the teacher, then process evaluation must be relegated to a subservient function of end-product testing of learning. Consequently, the nature of supervision is changing dramatically and altered societal perspectives will likely lead to changes in emphasis in the supervisory role and require the retraining of evaluators.

The Questionnaire

In a search for answers from supervisory personnel, this questionnaire sought to examine the opinions of leading supervisory personnel in Maryland regarding how they perceive their roles and functions in the light of the new

emphasis upon pupil and teacher testing. A Likert-type scale was constructed to focus on several direct concerns: (1) how do supervisory personnel regard Teacher Evaluation; (2) what Teaching Behaviors are important; (3) how is the Observation viewed in relationship to Measurement of the Process of Teaching; (4) what is the Philosophy of Evaluation that they utilize; (5) what Other Tasks help to improve teaching effectiveness; and, (6) how did they acquire their own Supervisory Skills. The questionnaire was mailed to educational leaders who attended the most recent Maryland Supervisory Symposium (1985). While a majority of the attendees (fifty-three of the 95) were primarily school personnel who held direct responsibility in supervisory roles, there was a smaller number (forty-two) of the job titles that were peripheral to supervision, e.g. college professor, director, departmental chair, principal, and superintendent. Such staff positions vary in job description. An additional six persons were teachers, making the total population 102 persons.

Table 1

Population Demographics of Supervisory Personnel

Status Position		Numbers
Supervisor/Staff Developer		53
Professor		12
Principal/Vice Principal		9
Curriculum Specialist/Program Director		9
Departmental Chair		9
Teacher		6
Superintendent/Assistant Superintendent		3
No Response		1
		102 Total
Gender:	Male	60
	Female	38
	No Response	4
		102 Total
Race:	White	96
	Black	3
	Hispanic	1
	No Response	2
		102 Total

Table 2

Organizational Level and Number of Teacher Supervisors

Level of Responsibility	Numbers Responding
K-12	30
7-12; 5-7; 7-9 (Junior High)	22
Elementary	21
Senior High	13
K-8	5
Middle School	4
College	3
No Response	4
	102 Totals

Number of Teachers Supervised	Numbers Responding
100 or more	24
51-100	18
26-50	16
16-25	7
1-15	17
None	18
Not Responding	2
	102 Totals

Results

A majority of the respondents described their positions as being in a direct supervisory role. Almost sixty percent of the respondents were males. The overwhelming racial composition was white (96 respondents), with only four individuals of minority status (Black or Hispanic). All grade levels (K-12) as well as the college level were represented in the population. The number of teachers that a supervisior counsels varies on the continuum from a low of 1-15; unbelievably, almost one-fourth (24 respondents) have responsibility for supervising 100 or more teachers--an almost Herculean task. Only eighteen respondents had no direct supervisory responsibility and as noted before, six of these were teachers.

The rest of the questionnaire responses are reported in percentages rounded to the nearest percent to make 100 percent (based on 102 respondents).

In the following section Questions 6 through 29 used a Likert-like scale of choices: strongly agree, agree, undecided (neutral), disagree, and strongly disagree.

Evaluation from the Supervisor's Perspective

Fundamental to one's actions is a philosophy; educational choices, decisions, and actions follow from an educational philosophy. Particularly, do supervisors perceive the close relationship between evaluation and their philosophy of education. That philosophy is made evident in the following questions surrounding evaluation: Should evaluation be formative or sumative? Is evaluation primariliy an administrative decision? Should evaluation be based on theory and practice? Should observations and follow-up conferences be considered from a democratic perspective? Is supervision an art or a science? Let us first examine the supervisor's responses that are most

directly concerned with the purposes of teacher evaluation. To the question: "Is the primary purpose of teacher evaluation to improve teaching?", there was almost universal positive agreement. Sixty-five percent of the respondents held that they "strongly agree" and twenty-five percent "agree" with this statement; only two percent responded that they "strongly disagree." Formative evaluation is used to improve teaching by helping the teacher perceive both strengths and weaknesses, thereafter assisting them in improving teaching methods and techniques. The other viewpoint question asked whether "the primary purpose of teacher evaluation was to provide information for administrative decisions regarding teacher effectiveness." Only fifteen percent "agreed" with this perspective and seventy-seven percent "disagreed."

Several additional questions help substantiate the consistency of the supervisor's viewpoint regarding evaluation. Another question requested the supervisor to rate the purposes of evaluation in four areas. First, the response to the question, "to help improve the teacher's classroom performance," was, again, overwhelmingly positive with 91% rating it as "important" or "most important." The counterpart would be three questions that rate three distinct purposes of evaluation: first, to help identify unsatisfactory teachers; second, as a basis for tenure decisions; and, third, to select teachers for merit pay. The majority of respondents (83%) believed one goal of evaluation was to identify unsatisfactory teachers. Summative evaluation also arises when the supervisor needs to gather information for tenure decisions and merit pay awards. While the public strongly believes in the importance of merit pay (the Gallup Poll, September 1985, reports 64% of the parents support merit pay while only 32% of teachers do so)[7]

a majority of supervisory personnel do not believe their function is to evaluate teachers for merit pay purposes. Seventy-one percent hold this to be an "unimportant" function. In a later question the respondents were asked to react to: "Is merit pay an appropriate means to reward teaching excellence?" The responses were across a range as follows: 9% "strongly agree"; 26% "agree"; 26% "undecided/neutral"; 28% "disagree"; and 11% "agree."

However, the reverse was true regarding the use of evaluation for the purpose of making tenure decisions. Apparently, most supervisory personnel accept, perhaps even reluctantly, their responsibility of summative evaluation for tenure decisions but do not similarly perceive merit in the same perspective. Nevertheless, eight-one percent of the respondents held evaluation for tenure decisions to be important.

Teaching Behaviors

In order to help teachers improve their teaching it seems only logical that the supervisor would be an expert in matters of observation techniques. Effective observations of teaching assumes that teaching behaviors cannot only be recognized but that they can be evaluated in a range as more desirable and less desirable behaviors. In other words, teaching effectiveness can be observed, recorded and measured. The overwhelming number of supervisors (90%) do believe that teacher observation is a crucial supervisory role. Furthermore, 92% of the respondents agreed that teaching behavior consists of events that could be recorded by a trained observer. Yet, the ambiguity and contradiction arises in the response to the question: "There is very little difficulty in determining what constitutes good teaching." While the majority of 58% "agreed" with that point of view, 38% "disagreed" and 4% were "undecided." The irony seems to arise in the job function of the supervisor, for if one

believes effective teaching behavior is crucial and can be observed, then it seems inconsistent to say that it is difficult to determine what constitutes good teaching. If an expert in observation techniques cannot determine readily the criterion for good teaching then how can he observe and record effective/ineffective teaching behaviors?

In the act of observation, supervisory respondents perceived three areas to be crucial to effective teaching. The strongest characteristic of good teaching appears to be the use of effective classroom management skills which 99% of the respondents considered to be exceedingly important to pupil achievement. Similarly, 97% selected "an orderly psychologically supportive learning environment," as basic to effective teaching, and 91% held that "effective teachers utilized more praise, positive reinforcement, and pupil encouragement." Consistently, research has shown that a psychologically supportive learning environment, the use of praise, reinforcement and encouragement, and effective classroom management techniques are characteristics of effective teachers.[8] Furthermore, Anderson, Brophy and Evertson state: "good classroom management underlies all other principles and makes it possible to implement them in instruction. In the well-managed classroom, students use efficient routines for carrying out daily tasks, and students work without distraction in a calm, pleasant environment. The teacher prevents behavior problems, and the students concentrate on the tasks at hand."[9]

As a classroom manager the teacher needs to organize and plan instructional activities, develop a set of teaching strategies to present those plans, and utilize appropriate disciplinary techniques when pupils become disengaged. Particularly, is engaged time an essential element in student achievement. Yet the supervisory response to whether, "every teacher

needs to be observed to determine their rate of time-on-task" was not as positive as one would expect. Forty-seven percent "agreed" with that statement, but 27% "disagreed" and 26% were "unsure/undecided." Apparently, the importance of the research on time-on-task is not widely accepted or perhaps is not perceived as directly related to classroom managements skills. Yet, Phillips has found that "the more interruptions and distractions that creep into classrooms, the less learning time there is available. The less learning time there is available, or to put it 'mathematically': time allocated to a subject--time wasted or lost = time available for learning the subject;..."[10] Time-on-task is a crucial variable in effective teaching and supervisory personnel need to be skilled in its use and evaluation.

Observations

In Maryland, each of the twenty-four school districts provides an evaluation format to each teacher as a part of their contractual package. In that package is the evaluation form which is utilized by the principal, supervisor, and/or departmental chairperson to provide "feedback" on the teacher's effectiveness. That evaluation sheet becomes a central focus in any observations being made. [Another section of this paper will make a more detailed analysis of each of those observation forms]. In Maryland, supervisory personnel are required to take at least one course that deals with supervision and another on the administrative aspects of the principalship as two basic minimal requirements for certification. In particular, the supervisory course is likely to have a strong component involving the purposes, philosophy, nature, and types of observation instruments. Particularly, such graduate courses deal with the current state of the art of supervising and with the research or observation instruments.

The importance of the observation cannot be underestimated. Ronald Hyman holds that "the cornerstone of the approach to supervision is observation. The supervisor needs to be able to observe his teachers in action," where the observation "involves planned, careful, focused, and active attention by the observer."[11] Especially, in the clinical type of supervision as developed by Cogan there are several direct steps that recognize and build on the observation. Notice the five steps in the clinical supervisory process: 1) pre-observation conference; 2) observation; 3) analysis and strategy; 4) post-observation conference; and, 5) post-conference analysis.[12]

A bit of a contradiction arises between the 92% of supervisory personnel who responded that "teaching behaviors can be recorded," and that "specific observation instruments are useful in helping teachers to examine their teaching styles." There were 31% "undecided" about the usefulness of observation instruments with the majority (63%) finding them "useful." In one of the earliest reviews of observations, A. S. Barr found that "the fact that two or more observers observing the same teacher simultaneously may disagree in the quality of teaching observed was affirmed."[13] Furthermore, Donald Medley found that observations have limited value because of their short duration. He states, "the sample of a teacher's repertoire of performance competencies that s/he is likely to display during a single half-hour visit is neither large enough nor sufficiently representative of the full range of competencies a teacher may possess to yield an adequate measure of a teacher's full repertoire."[14] Yet, it is not that systematic observation is not a useful means of collecting information about the classroom and teaching strategies being employed, but that the process of teaching cannot fully and accurately be measured without a series of observations.

There are several ingredients to effective observation. First, there must be trained observers who possess an adequate, conceptual model of what constitutes effective teaching. Second, observers need to be skilled in techniques of observing. Third, an instrument needs to be organized which will serve as an effective basis for the observation and the follow-up conferences.

A recently developed state-wide system to improve teaching has been adopted in Virginia. This Beginning Teacher Assistance Program, begun July 1, 1985, sends trained observers to classrooms of new teachers where the observers utilize a list of 14 competencies, e.g., academic learning time, planning, lesson structure, dealing with individual differences, classroom climate, questioning skills, reinforcement techniques, etc. After the follow-up conference, teachers are sent to regional centers where they are assisted in the mastery of those skills in which they are found to be deficient.[15] Here, the purpose of the observation system is fully met--namely, to obtain meaningful feedback to assist teachers in improving their teaching effectiveness.

It is crucial to have a well-developed observation instrument because this acts as a useful means to collect data on the classroom atmosphere and helps the observer determine teaching strategies that can be improved. When the observation instrument is well described, objective in the sense of collecting information that has no inherent bias, and is feasible for easy interpretation, then that observation instrument meets the criteria for effectiveness. If the coding is not objective and quantifiable, then it will likely be subject to misinterpretation by both the observer and the teacher being observed.

Currently, most evaluation systems focus on the teaching process with the assumption that effective teaching leads to effective learning. The interaction analysis system developed by Ned Flanders builds primarily on three assumptions: "1) teaching can be submitted to systematic inquiry; 2) teaching involves behaviors which can be identified and which teachers and prospective teachers can systematically acquire; 3) teachers and prospective teachers want to improve their teaching."[16] While focusing solely on the verbal behaviors of the classroom, those events are held to be readily classifiable. This observation scheme makes use of frequency tabulations where every three seconds the observer writes down the type of interaction being observed. Since Flanders found that the typical teacher interacts in two-thirds of all verbal classroom communications, then those verbal communications are held ultimately to be the primary means of determining teaching effectiveness. Other kinds of observation instruments are rating scales, checklists and free responses. Rating scales have largely disappeared because they tend to compare teachers rather than provide a record of the teaching behaviors, or as some might say--they tend to measure something that can't readily be measured. Free responses are narrative written notes on what is being observed. Checklists are more generic in offering categories of any events that are to be observed and suggest more familiar behaviors that act as sign posts, e.g., a question-answer response. Category system such as Flanders and OScAR code each verbal event into categories of inclusive behaviors and are the most common if not the most popular form of research instruments.

To the question, "Rating scales of teachers are very useful for the supervisory role," there appears to be considerable neutrality, since 42% said they were "undecided" and a surprising number, 36%, "disagreed" with their

usefulness; only 18% "agreed" with the statement. Apparently, rating scales are held to be of only minimal value to most supervisors or else cause "static" since teachers resent being rated and compared with other teachers.

It was encouraging to discover that 77% of the respondents held that peer observation (sending a teacher to observe a superior teacher) was thought to be a significant strategy for improving the former's effectiveness. Only 3% of those responding saw it to be of "little importance."

In spite of the promotion of a democratic supervisory philosophy of sharing responsibility for observations, 67% of the respondents disagreed that "all supervisory observations should be announced and agree upon before hand." Twenty-five percent "agreed" with this statement.

The Frequency of Observations

In the examination of the frequency of observations, the respondents consistently believed that both beginning and tenured teachers should be observed. As was expected, the supervisors held that beginning teachers (first year) should be observed multiple times, 60% selected at least five or more observations as the minimum. Contrastingly, only 6% believed tenured teachers should be observed as frequently. The majority of respondents (58%) thought one or two observations were sufficient for tenured teachers. Apparently, supervisors perceive that observations of tenured teachers serves little purpose, but new teachers need to be observed to help them establish effective teaching styles. The 35% who responded that the beginning teacher should be observed "7 or more times or as needed" have gone beyond rating of teachers to a philosophy of helping teachers improve their teaching.

Jon Wiles and Joseph Bonti list the nature of the supervisory program as identified by A.S.C.D. to consist of: evaluating instructional performance; observing teaching in the classroom; and three other related goals which are

staff development activities, in-service programs and improving pupil effectiveness.[17] The evolution of supervisory roles from that of classroom inspector (1850-1910), still continues to revolve about instruction with altered perspectives ranging from scientific supervision (1910-1920), to clinical supervision during the 1960s. More recently, supervision has been seen from a management perspective as educators approximated the business model of MBO (Management by Objectives). This leads to some of the newer supervisory roles that are arising with the emphases on improving the quality of the schools as projected in A Nation at Risk and other proposals. These roles require a greater rigor, especially in the frequency and analysis of teaching effectiveness.

Other Supervisory Roles

Until recently the primary function of the supervisor has been to observe teachers and improve their teaching. Jane Roberts and Ellen Newcombe surveyed supervisory practices in Maryland and how supervisors spend their time. They found that 31% of their workday was in "direct observation," especially assisting teachers to "improve their instruction" and only 5% was in actual "evaluation." Other supervisory roles were:

Meetings	14% of time
Curriculum	10% of time
Proposals/Records	8% of time
Inservice	7-1/2% of time
Federal Programs	4% of time
Parents & Community	4% of time
Miscellaneous (conferences, testing, summer programs, parents).[18]	15% of time

One future consideration that received no recognition in that survey is that of merit pay and the subsequent evaluations that it will necessitate. Recently, the nation has followed the Japanese emphasis upon quality control, an idea which is being applied in many areas of our society. Malpractice

suits against physicians indicate the need for better quality control of doctors. Similarly, several national reports suggest an improvement in teacher selection, teaching effectiveness, and pupil competency. A controversial means of rewarding superior teaching is through merit pay. As previously noted, supervisory personnel are undecided about its appropriateness. It is not that effective teaching is not measurable, but supervisors have come to perceive their primary role as a helper of teachers rather than as a rater of teachers. The former role is called the "white hat" role; supervisors have shied away from and sought to minimize their "black hat" role of summative evaluation, especially when this role involves the dirty aspects of firing and merit pay. The currently held assumption is that supervision needs to build on good will, harmony, and trust which seems to conflict with the supervisory position in dismissal and merit pay which calls for judgment, directness, specification, and rating. Perhaps, supervisors have been their own worst enemy in believing that democratic supervision needs to be equated with non-directness and lack of systematic and standardized observation and evaluation procedures. The unions tend to fear and fight merit pay and rating scales, but the recent movement to a Master Teacher Program in Tennessee will necessitate a strong evaluation program where teachers must show professional performance competency in areas such as classroom planning, classroom management and teaching effectiveness.[19] Moreover, the emphasis on product learning is contrary to the current role expectation of both teachers and supervisors.

Even though the Roberts and Newcombe study of supervisory roles found that Maryland supervisors spend just 7-1/2% of their time in inservice programs, 83% of the respondents held inservice programs to be an effective strategy for improving the teachers' instructional techniques. Since most inservice programs are likely to be offered on Saturdays, or during summer

vacation periods and are apt to be administered at the school district unit, they are less likely to be personalized to the needs of teachers in specific grade and subject areas. Unless inservice programs are carefully integrated with the problems of teachers they are unlikely to serve the real purpose of promoting instructional improvement.

A considerable number of respondents (80%) believe that demonstration teaching by themselves or other superior teachers was an effective means of improving teaching. Particularly was the analysis and follow-up conference to provide feedback considered (rated highly by 95% of the respondents) to be a helpful strategy to improve teaching. While half (50%) held that they could use exhortation to direct teachers toward a particular teaching technique, the other 50% thought it to be of "little" or "no effect." Apparently preaching and telling is not as effective as showing.

Some Philosophical Considerations about Supervision

There are many facets of supervision that depend upon one's philosophical frame of reference. That philosophical viewpoint will strongly determine how democratic the supervisor is in relationship with others, how teacher evaluation is perceived, and whether the supervisor is an administrator or teacher. First, let us examine several of the components of supervision which depend upon a democratic human relations stance. There have been several important studies on leadership styles. Fred Fiedler laid the groundwork for examining leadership in terms of psychological distance. In leadership style the leader who is more effective accepts co-workers but tends to be analytical in his relationships with them.[20] In similar follow-up studies, White and Lippitt discovered that there were three types of leadership styles--autocratic, Laissez-faire and democratic. The democratic leader was

more effective in producing originality, motivation and group cohesiveness in workers.[21] Similarly, the literature regularly promotes a democratic supervisory approach that is built around an emphasis on human relations, sympathic understandings if not empathy, and self reliance. This attitude is often expressed in an emphasis on interpersonal skills. Seventy-five percent of the respondents thought that such interpersonal skills were a "basic component of supervisory effectiveness." Usually those who emphasize the interpersonal roles wish to help teachers improve the teacher's style of classroom interaction.

Seventy-seven percent of the respondents did not wish to emphasize end-product testing of pupils but rather would evaluate the teacher's classroom performance. One hundred percent of the respondents believed "systematic feedback regarding performance" to be a crucial ingredient of effective evaluation.

Other Tasks

Probably the most significant area beyond that of observation and evaluation of teaching is the area of demonstration teaching. A majority of supervisors (80%) believe that demonstration teaching is "very effective" or at least "effective" as a strategy for improving teaching effectiveness. Yet, the literature reveals a total absence of studies on the efficacy and use of demonstration teaching by supervisors (departmental chairs and principals as well) to improve teaching skills of teachers. Ironically, it is taken for granted that effective teachers demonstrate valid and measurable teaching skills; all effective observation and evaluation systems make this basic assumption. Moreover, there has been the corollary assumption that supervisors have been selected from the teaching ranks because of their teaching

expertise. Consequently, the expectation is that supervisors would provide demonstrations of specific classroom skills for teachers in need. However, it appears to be the rare supervisor who ever provides demonstrations as part of his job function. This may be the case because supervisory personnel tend to get further away from "real" teaching performances the longer they remain supervisors. Some supervisors may feel that there is a danger in taking over a classroom and "falling on one's face." Furthermore, supervision by definition means to be an overseer, not a field hand who demonstrates and gets his/her hands dirty with mundane classroom routines.

Responses of Statistical Significance

An important application of factor analysis is the identification of factors underlying a large number of variables. Through correlational procedures these variables may be grouped together to form a factor or factors of related variables, thus simplifying the data interpretation process. Essentially factor analysis provides a summary of the relationships among the variables and provides the basis for greater insight into the underlying factors. It also provides the basis for instrument refinement, item deletion, and additional hypothesis generation.

The supervisors' responses were factor analyzed to provide the investigators insight into the underlying factors that related to their responses. If certain factors were identified as explaining much of the variance of the supervisors' responses, interpretation and summarization of the supervisors' attitudes would be simplified. Sixteen factors were extracted by the Principal Components method but only the first five factors which explained the greatest amount of variance are discussed in the following paragraphs.

In the statistical analysis of the data, on most of the items the respondents held diverse opinions about the nature of effective supervisory practices. Supervisors feel strongly about their viewpoints, and their diverse opinions led to several bimodal distributions away from a neutral ground clustering, as individuals responded negatively (disagree) or positively (disagree). For example, question 9 asks: "There is very little difficulty in determining what constitutes good teaching?" Fifty-eight percent of the respondents agreed and 38% disagreed, while only 4% were in the neutral or undecided range. A similar example illustrating the clustering away from a neutral stance was question 17, "The follow-up conference constitutes the primary means of changing teacher behavior?" The response was 44% agreeing and 37% disagreeing; however, only 20% were in the neutral range.

There were five factors that warrant discussion. These five factors are: the manner in which the supervisors look at in-service and university credits; items that relate to the evaluation component; the effect of gender as an influencer of loadings; the relationship of the number of teachers supervised and supervisory style; and, several items that have strong correlations, specifically expository exhortation, tenure decisions and the purpose of evaluation as a means of identifying unsatisfactory teachers.

In the rotated factor matrix analysis it is suggested that supervisory personnel who responded with a 1 (strongly agree or most important) or 2 (important or agree) were likely to view the following three items similarly--25 (in-service programs as effective in helping teachers to improve their instructional techniques), 36 (additional university credits in the teacher's content area), and 37 (in-service workshops). Supervisors were apt to value these qualities and achievements in their own professional background.

The second factor of significance dealt with the evaluation component. Supervisors reported that four items were important to their job. Those items showing positive correlations as evaluation practices held to be important by supervisors were: item 26 (merit pay is an appropriate means to reward teaching excellence), item 27 (rating scales of teachers are very useful for the supervisory role), item 28 (no teacher who fails to meet the minimum standard on a teacher competency test should be hired), and item 45 (an important purpose of evaluation was to improve the teacher's classroom performance).

Factor 3 examined gender relationships to supervisory opinions. Three items were positively loaded, that is females were more positive than males on the importance and value of specific teacher classroom attitudes. Specifically, females were overwhelmingly positive on item 15 (effective teachers use more praise, reinforcement, and pupil encouragement), item 16 (an effective teacher presents an orderly, psychologically supportive learning environment) and item 9 (there is little difficulty in determining what constitutes good teaching). The converse was a female negative loading response to item 36 (additional university credits were important in the teacher's content area). A tentative hypothesis to explain this range of choices is that more female supervisors are apt to be in the elementary fields where the teacher must work on a full-day basis with the same group of pupils in a classroom atmosphere where the classroom is viewed as a second home. Consequently, younger children are likely to require a psychologically supportive atmosphere that promotes emotional and social growth with a high level of positive reinforcement.

Factor 4 compared the number of teachers supervised with the organizational level of the supervisor. There was a positive correlation between the size of a school and the number of teachers supervised to the

style of verbal interaction (item 33). The larger the school and the more specialized supervision in subject areas led to a more direct supervisory approach. Furthermore, those supervisors who work with larger numbers of teachers are somewhat more likely to feel that they should have a key role in the teacher selection process (item 20).

The last factor dealt with the selection of those items that had a strong relationship to improving teaching effectiveness and rating of teachers. Generally, item 39 (expository exhortation) was held to be an effective strategy. Supervisors selecting this as an "important" response were likely to also find considerable value in item 43 where a major purpose of evaluation is its use as the basis of tenure decisions. Moreover, evaluation was similarly viewed as an important means to help identify unsatisfactory teachers (item 44).

Conclusions and Recommendations

With the recent emphasis on quality teaching it will be desirable if not essential to assess teaching effectiveness. While it has been assumed that a teaching certificate opens the door to the initial teaching appointment, it can no longer be assumed that beginning teachers are effective teachers. The role of the supervisor (departmental chair and principals as well) will certainly be directed more extensively towards the observation of teachers. Those observations will have a bottom line of eliminating unsatisfactory teachers but will also necessitate the development of strategies for helping teachers in general to improve their performance. Observation followed up by diagnosis, evaluation, counseling, and in-service programs will become the primary means to help ensure quality learning. Teacher performance is integrally connected with student learning. Therefore, the process of teaching will be tied to pupil end-product learning. The remainder of the

1980s will likely see the clarification of the supervisory role with the dominant emphasis becoming the management of instruction.

The responses in this questionnaire indicate that supervisory personnel perceive their primary role as improving teaching. However, the upcoming charge to observe for summative evaluation to eliminate unsatisfactory teachers was also accepted as an important role. Moreover, supervisory responses appear to be overwhelmingly negative toward the concept of evaluation to reward teachers through merit pay.

Supervisors overwhelmingly believe that the observation procedure is the most effective means in determining teacher effectiveness. The strongest characteristic of effective teaching is that of classroom management skills, closely followed by an orderly, psychologically supportive learning environment and teacher use of positive reinforcement.

As would be expected, supervisory personnel believe that teaching behaviors can be recorded but some find the usefulness of any instrument to be somewhat limited, especially when the observation is of short duration. Rating scales were held to be of minimal value while peer observation was held to be a significant strategy for helping improve teaching effectiveness.

Most supervisors believe five or more observations to be the minimum number for visiting beginning teachers.

Several of the other supervisory roles of significance were to provide in-service programs and to direct weak teachers to observe superior teaching styles.

Philosophically, the state of the art in supervision is that process observation and evaluation is both a more viable and effective procedure for improving teaching than other means. Moreover, end-product testing was held to be less desirable as a strategy for evaluating teacher performance.

Footnotes

[1]Alec M. Gallup. "The 18th Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes toward the Public School," Phi Delta Kappan. 68 (Sept., 1986), p. 43-59.

[2]Robert S. Soar. "Measures of Quality in the Classroom," Journal of Classroom Interaction. 18 (Summer, 1983), p. 7-15.

[3]John A. Henry et al, "Evaluation of Teaching Skills," The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education. 9 (April, 1981), p. 62.

[4]Donald M. Medley. "Teacher Effectiveness," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Editor: Harold E. Mitzel, N.Y.: The Free Press, Vol. 4, p. 1894-1903.

[5]Ben M. Harris. Supervisory Behavior in Education. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Company, 1975, p. 11-12.

[6]Jon Wiles and Joseph Bondi. Supervision: A Guide to Practice. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1986, p. 8.

[7]Alec M. Gallup, "The 17th Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public School," Phi Delta Kappan. 67 (Sept., 1985), p. 25-47.

[8]George E. Dickson and William Wiersma. Empirical Measurement of Teaching Performance. Toledo: Center for Educational Research, College of Education, University of Toledo, January, 1984, p. 155.

[9]Linda M. Anderson, C. M. Evertson, & J. E. Brophy. "An Experimental Study of Effective Teaching in First Grade Reading Groups." Elementary School Journal. 79 (March, 1979), p. 222.

[10]D. C. Phillips. "Sound and Fury: A Fantasy on Educational Research." California Journal of Teacher Education. 9 (Fall, 1982), p. 51-52.

[11]Ronald T. Hyman. School Administrator's Handbook of Teacher Supervision and Evaluation Methods. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1975, p. 2, 23.

[12]Morris L. Cogan. Clinical Supervision. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973, pp. 10-12.

[13]A. S. Barr et al., Wisconsin Studies of the Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness. Madison: Dembar Pubs., 1961, p. 156.

[14]Donald M. Medley. Teacher Competency Testing and the Educator. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1982, p. 17.

[15]Department of Education, Commonwealth of Virginia. "Beginning Teacher Assistance Program," Richmond, Virginia. Paper presented at Eastern Educational Research Association, March 12-16, 1986.

[16]Edmund Amidon and Elizabeth Hunter. Improving Teaching: The Analysis of Classroom Verbal Behavior. New York: Rinehart and Winston, 1966, p. 221.

[17]Jon Wiles and Joseph Bondi, op cit., p. 28.

[18]Jane M. E. Roberts and Ellen I. Newcombe. Supervision: Practice and Preference in the State of Maryland. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, Sept., 1984, ED 252 914, p. 50.

[19]Beecher E. Clapp. "How Tennessee Is Implementing that Celebrated Career Ladder," Executive Educator. 7 (Jan., 1985), p. 21.

[20]Fred E. Fiedler. "Leadership and Leadership Traits," in Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior. Editor: Luigi Petrullo and B. M. Bass, N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961, p. 179-186.

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